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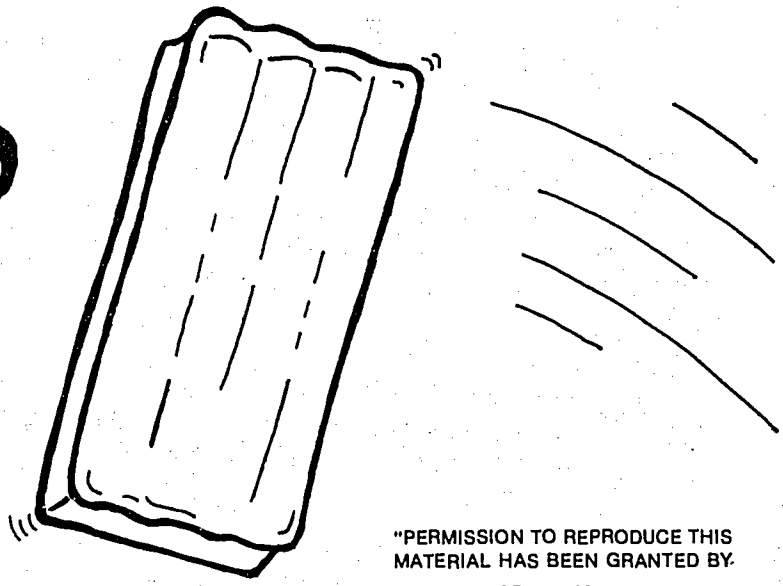
ABSTRACT

Based on the realization that professors' cultural and personal backgrounds affect the way they transmit information and the way they interact with men and women students in their classes, this booklet is designed to help faculty members assess how they are presenting subject matter to their students. The first section of the booklet, "Student-Faculty Communication Patterns," identifies and proposes solutions to problems of stereotyping, biases in language structures and usages, and patterns of discrimination in classroom interaction that can differently affect women and men of varied cultural backgrounds. The second section, "The Student Performance Questionnaire," suggests a way to seek student opinions of classroom interaction patterns according to the student's age, sex, and race. Specifically, this section contains a discussion of the development of the questionnaire, directions for its use, a copy of the questionnaire, suggestions for analyzing data gained from it, and instructions for interpreting its results. The booklet also contains an extensive bibliography. (FL)

REMOVING BIAS



GUIDELINES FOR STUDENT-FACULTY COMMUNICATION

WOMEN'S EDUCATIONAL EQUITY ACT PROGRAM
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

SPEECH COMMUNICATION ASSOCIATION
ANNANDALE, VIRGINIA 22003

REMOVING BIAS

GUIDELINES FOR STUDENT-FACULTY COMMUNICATION

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a part of
SEX AND GENDER IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES:
REASSESSING THE INTRODUCTORY COURSE

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FOREWORD

Removing Bias: Guidelines for Student-Faculty Communication is based on the realization that professors' cultural and personal backgrounds affect the way they transmit information and the way they interact with men and women students in their classes. It is designed to help faculty assess how they are presenting subject matter to students. *Removing Bias* consists of two parts: "Student-Faculty Communication Patterns" and a "Student Perception Questionnaire." "Student-Faculty Communication Patterns" identifies and proposes solutions for problems of stereotyping, biases in language structures and usages, and patterns of discrimination in classroom interaction that can differentially affect women and men of varied cultural backgrounds. The "Student Perception Questionnaire" suggests a way to seek student opinions of classroom interaction patterns according to the students' sex, age, and race.

Removing Bias: Guidelines for Student-Faculty Communication is an expanded version of one of the four modules resulting from the Curriculum Analysis Project in the Social Sciences (CAPSS). This project was funded by the Women's Educational Equity Act Program, Department of Education, Washington, D.C., from 1979–1981. CAPSS' purpose was developing materials to help faculty teaching social science introductory courses incorporate into their course content and teaching practices new and existing knowledge about women and gender-specific knowledge about men. The development of these materials was based on the assumption that most faculty who teach introductory courses in colleges and universities are aware that new research and information on sex and gender have affected their disciplines, but perhaps are not aware of the volume of new materials available. *Removing Bias* provides a compendium for faculty who want to use new ideas and knowledge but who may have little time to review the literature.

The products resulting from the project are in four distinct modules[1], linked by the title: *Sex and*

[1]The other three modules resulting from the CAPSS project are:

Sex and Gender in the Social Sciences: Reassessing the Introductory Course for Introductory Sociology, available from: The Teaching Resources Center, American Sociological Association, 1722 N Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Assessing the Introductory Psychology Course, available from: The Office of Women's Programs, American Psychological Association, 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Sex and Gender in the Social Sciences: Reassessing the Introductory Course for Principles of Microeconomics, available from: Dr. Judith M. Gappa, Associate Provost, San Francisco State University, 1600 Holloway Avenue, San Francisco, CA 94132.

Gender in the Social Sciences: Reassessing the Introductory Course. The original version of one of the modules, *Guidelines for Student-Faculty Communication,* has been revised and expanded based upon the research from a later project entitled "Cross-Cultural Perspectives in the Curriculum," funded by the Chancellor's Office, California State University System. Included in this project was the development of a monograph entitled "Student-Faculty Communication: Cultural Diversity as a Resource in the Classroom" by Mercilee M. Jenkins.

The current version of the *Guidelines for Student Faculty Communication* focuses on gender, but includes material on racial bias developed during the "Cross-Cultural Perspectives in the Curriculum" project. Both factors—gender and race—are crucial to promoting a bias-free classroom.

TERMINOLOGY

We began the CAPSS project using the term "women and women's issues." We quickly became aware that this language was limited and excluded important findings about men as males. We ultimately decided that the term "sex and gender" would provide greater accuracy and flexibility. Consequently, that phrase has been used in the *Guidelines for Student-Faculty Communication.*[2]

Currently sociologists and psychologists generally agree that the term "sex" refers to biological components (hormones and chromosomes) while "gender" is used for the learned and cultural behaviors loosely associated with biological sex. In the sex-gender system, the scholar seeks to understand how the biological nature of humankind (procreation, reproduction, secondary sex characteristics, and visible biological differences between the sexes) is transformed culturally and socially. Social scientists believe that every society effects these transformations, yet in enormously varied ways.

Central to the use of the term "sex" for biology and "gender" for the cultural and learned is the concept of sexuality. Concepts of sexuality have differed greatly for women and men. While ideas about female sexuality have changed over time and differ from culture to culture, women generally have been equated with their sexuality to a much greater extent than men. Biological sex, sexuality, and gender are three terms distinctly different in meaning, but closely interrelated theoretically and empirically. The phrase "sex and gender" encompasses all three terms. Throughout *Removing Bias,* gender is often used as a shorthand reference to the sex-gender system except where distinctions between the terms are particularly significant.

Terminology is also important when discussing race and ethnicity. The faculty consultants who participated in the "Cross-Cultural Perspectives in the Curriculum" project agreed that "people of color" is at this time considered the most appropriate inclusive term for blacks, Latinos, Asian Americans, American Indians, and Pacific Islanders. People of color is similar to the term "white" in that it refers to appearances rather than cultural background. The term "ethnic" was avoided since it has such broad application. The term "minority" was considered inappropriate because it misrepresents the actual proportion of people of color in the world. Racial and cultural terminology is in flux, as is the terminology on sex and gender, because it reflects our changing understanding of the issues involved.

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[2]See Barrie Thorne, "Gender . . . How is it Best Conceptualized?" in Laurel Richardson and Verta Taylor, eds., *Readings in Sex and Gender,* D. C. Heath and Co., Lexington, Mass. (in press); and Rhoda Kesler Unger, "Toward a Redefinition of Sex and Gender," *American Psychologist* 3:1085–1094, for a more thorough description of the development of terminology.

STUDENT-FACULTY COMMUNICATION PATTERNS

INTRODUCTION

The "Student-Faculty Communication Patterns" are based on two premises. The first is that college professors are competent, conscientious, and professional individuals who neither desire nor intend to be biased, prejudiced, or offensive in their interactions with students. The second premise is that instructor bias, nevertheless, does occur in the classroom, not deliberately, but because of misinformation or a lack of awareness. Thus the primary focus of *Removing Bias* is to create a greater awareness of the subtle, and sometimes not-so-subtle, ways in which gender and cultural stereotyping occurs in classroom interactions.

Our expectation is that many university professors may declare, with either surprise or chagrin, that they do not stereotype and are not sexist. However, subtle forms of sex bias and gender stereotyping have been so universal in American schools and so seemingly accepted within our culture that, until the last decade, they have remained almost invisible—or, when visible, have been viewed as innocuous.

Stereotyping affects the behavior of students as well as faculty. It can result in limited aspirations and restricted choices for women and men from different cultural backgrounds. Our aim is to inform faculty about possible biasing patterns of interaction with the hope that they will take the responsibility for bringing about change.

"Student-Faculty Communication Patterns" has been organized into five sections, including the introduction. The three major sections—"Eliminating Stereotypes," "Language Structure and Usage," and "Classroom Interaction"—explore student-faculty communication patterns in terms of our underlying assumptions, expressions, and actions, i.e., the attitudes and values embedded in our cultural codes of communication that affect our behavior as we interact with each other in the classroom. These three sections address specific problems of inadvertently biased practices and specific solutions for the problems. The final section, the "Student-Faculty Communication

Checklist," is a brief summary of key factors to consider in evaluating classroom interaction, accompanied by methods for carrying out such self-evaluation.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE "STUDENT-FACULTY COMMUNICATION PATTERNS"

The "Student-Faculty Communication Patterns" evolved in several stages. The first stage occurred during the research and development phase of all the modules for the CAPSS project. The methodology is briefly described below.

1. As textbooks for introductory courses in microeconomics, psychology, and sociology were reviewed for development of the content guidelines for these three modules, information was also identified for use in the "Student-Faculty Communication Patterns." Textbooks and journal articles promoting sex equity in education were reviewed. Of particular value were the guidelines on sexism and language published by professional groups and publishing firms such as the following: The American Psychological Association (1977), The American Sociological Association (1980), Houghton Mifflin (1975), Macmillan (1975), McGraw-Hill (1974), and the Council on Interracial Books for Children, Inc. (1977).

2. During winter quarter 1980, one microeconomics, one psychology, and two sociology courses were audio recorded daily and recordings were analyzed for content. The faculty teaching the four courses volunteered the use of their classes after assurances that the information collected would remain confidential. Those faculty members were aware of the general objectives of the project, but were not provided with the instruments or instructions being used to analyze their materials or classroom presentations. The students in the courses were informed that the classes were being used for a research project, but were not told the nature of the project.

3. Undergraduate students were hired and trained in the procedures to be followed in audio taping the classes. This training included acquisition, maintenance, and use of the tape recorder and cassettes; procedures to keep intrusion into the classroom minimal; and daily transfer of tapes to the research assistants. Guidelines were developed for use by research assistants in the content analysis of the tapes. The guidelines for the tape analysis contained concepts, explanations, and a series of open-ended questions that provided an overview of the dynamics to listen for in the tapes. The research assistants extracted all comments, phrases, lecture content, and examples that could be incorporated into the *Guidelines for Faculty-Student Communication* or the other modules.

4. While tape recording each class session, the student aides also completed a classroom observation form. They were asked to record, by sex, the number of times students asked a question, responded to a question asked by an instructor, and/or made a comment in class. They also recorded the number of times an instructor called on a student by name, asked a question of a student, or positively reinforced a student response. This provided additional information about classroom interaction which was incorporated into the "Student-Faculty Communication Patterns."

5. The "Student-Faculty Communication Patterns" were subsequently revised on the basis of comments from field test reviewers. Eighteen faculty who teach introductory courses in psychology,

sociology, and economics in six universities and colleges in the San Francisco Bay area evaluated this material and made suggestions for changes. Each faculty member was interviewed and was asked to submit a written report. The modules resulting from the field test represent the conclusion of the CAPSS project.

6. The current version of the *Guidelines for Student-Faculty Communication* focuses on gender, but includes material on racial bias developed during the "Cross-Cultural Perspectives in the Curriculum" project. Both of these factors are crucial to promoting equity in the classroom.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The interaction of communication patterns in the classroom is complex and not yet adequately researched. Each interaction involves many variables. Although most of the research on the dynamics of classroom interaction has been done at the elementary and secondary levels, evidence exists that college and university faculty also interact with and treat male students differently from females, and white students differently from students of color. These differences can occur through verbal and written language patterns, nonverbal communication, response to student comments, and personal aspects of interactions with students, such as the use of a student's name or eye contact.

Elementary and Secondary Level. Many researchers have established that differences exist in the classroom behaviors of boys and girls at the elementary and secondary school levels, and that differences exist in the way teachers relate to boys and girls in the classroom (Levitin and Chanais, 1972; Jackson and Lahaderne, 1967; Sears and Feldman, 1966; Dweck et al., 1978; Child et al., 1966).

Sadker and Sadker (1979a) extensively researched the literature on teacher expectations and interactions in the classroom and subsequently developed a curricular unit for teacher education programs entitled, "Between Teacher and Student: Overcoming Sex Bias in the Classroom." They state that teachers enter a classroom with culturally developed expectations of boys and girls and that those expectations result in differential interaction patterns. Students are encouraged to perform to the expectations of the teachers, thereby promoting and reinforcing racial and gender stereotyping. This difference in expectation limits the potential of students and is costly academically, psychologically, economically, and in career choices.

Research cited by the Sadkers indicated that boys receive more reprimands and disapproval from teachers, but also receive more praise and more positive and active teaching attention than girls. Teachers, when complimenting students, describe girls with adjectives such as cooperative, mannerly; poised, sensitive, while they use adjectives such as active, adventurous, curious, and independent to describe boys (Sadker and Sadker, 1979a, p. 16ff). Criticisms of girls focus on lack of knowledge and skill, whereas boys tend to be criticized for disruptive behaviors in the classroom. Although boys are seen as potentially disruptive, they are also seen as more creative and rewarding to teach (Thorne, 1979, p. 13). The Sadkers make the following observation:

> We find that boys, especially high achieving boys, receive more approval, questions, detailed instructions, and, in general, more active teaching attention. We see that girls of all ability levels do not interact as frequently with teachers. Nor do students who are members of minority groups. (Sadker and Sadker, 1979a, p. 28).

Teachers are more likely to engage in extended task-related conversations with boys. They are also more apt to give male students detailed instructions to enable them to do things for themselves, whereas some teachers tend to do things for girls rather than explain to them how to do them. (Sadker and Sadker, 1979a, p. 27).

College and University Level. Studies cited in Hall, 1982, have indicated that women college students continue to avoid traditionally masculine fields of study, feel less confident about their preparation for graduate school than their male counterparts, and demonstrate a decline in academic and career aspirations over their college years.[3] Women have gained access to higher education in greater and greater numbers—they are now the majority of undergraduates—and yet their academic experiences are clearly different from men's even when the same institutions, classrooms, and faculty are involved. The evidence suggests that this difference begins in elementary school and continues through graduate school. Furthermore, some faculty behaviors have been found to be crucial in both reinforcing and perpetuating these differences and diminishing them. Since women are likely to receive mixed messages concerning academic and career goals, it is not surprising that they are particularly attuned to the supportiveness of their academic environment (Hearn and Olzak, cited in Hall, 1982). Several surveys of undergraduate and graduate women at a range of institutions have found that faculty attitudes and behaviors had a particularly significant impact on women students (see for example, El-Khawas, 1980). The disproportionate number of male faculty gives women few female role models. In addition, male faculty tend to reinforce male students more than they do women students (Horchschild, 1975; and Speizer, 1981).

In the fall of 1979, scholars from many disciplines were invited to a special conference on the Education Environment for Undergraduate Women at Wellesley College, Wellesley, Massachusetts. A major discussion topic was sex difference in the interaction patterns between faculty and students and their effects. Two researchers reported their findings regarding variations in teaching styles and student responses using a timed observation technique (Macke et al., 1979; Sternglanz, 1979). Results of the Sternglanz (1979, p. 7) study indicate a consistent pattern of sex differences in interaction patterns among students despite the fact that their professors did not discernibly encourage this pattern. Faculty in the observed classes reinforced almost every attempted interaction with men and women students. The sex of the faculty member and the type of subject matter in the observed class did not affect results, with one important exception. Significantly more interactions occurred in classes taught by women than in classes taught by men. In addition, men students had more and longer interactions with their professors than did women students. In class after class where the observations were taken (60 classes in all) women students initiated interaction less often and ended interactions sooner than men (Sternglanz, 1979, p. 8). Numbers of multiple interactions and numbers of interactions by multiple interactors all contributed to the consistent participation difference between women and men students (Sternglanz, 1979, p. 11).

Also at the Wellesley conference, Thorne drew on research on gender and patterns of interaction in a variety of settings which emphasized the positive aspects of women's speech. She stated

> These diverse studies (and I know of none with strongly counter findings) do suggest that in interacting with one another, women have developed ways of cooperating, of

[3]*The Classroom Climate: A Chilly One for Women?* Roberta M. Hall, available from Project on the Status and Education of Women, Association of American Colleges, 1818 R Street, NW, Washington, D.C. 20009 for $3.00, is a valuable resource with numerous suggestions for improving women students' participation in the classroom.

> providing mutual support, of granting one another more equal verbal space, and that these patterns are less present in all-male or in mixed-sex groups. We need studies of college classrooms with different sex ratios; we may have a great deal to learn from interaction in all female classes, although the dominance of the teacher may establish a generally hierarchical mode. But if one is intent on breaking down dominance and competition in educational contexts, as many feminists are, we may find that women's speech can teach us a great deal (Thorne, 1979, p. 20).

Yet to be investigated is the linkage, if any, between the information being presented, how that information is presented, and classroom interaction patterns. Studies reported at the Wellesley College conference stressed the need for more research on the classroom environment and its effect from a variety of perspectives. These ranged from studies of language used by faculty to nonverbal interaction.

Cross-Cultural Communication. The successful incorporation of the often-ignored perspectives of people of color and women of all races into the curriculum presupposes a faculty that is prepared to teach multicultural course content using cross-cultural communication skills. This involves awareness of one's own cultural heritage, as well as those of others, and the acknowledgment that cultural differences exist in the classroom. Acknowledging differences among students does not mean reducing academic standards, but rather basing standards on a curriculum that includes the history and experience of all students. Yet advocates of multicultural education generally agree that, while curricular materials are important, what the teacher does with the materials is crucial in the educational process. Student-faculty interaction is one of the major determinants of the quality of education. Gay (1977) identifies two major components for understanding cross-cultural communication in the classroom: understanding cultural conflict and understanding the instructional styles and verbal behaviors of teachers and the responses of students to these behaviors. The understanding of cultural and social differences in the classroom can facilitate communication and open the way for new learning.

Many studies have demonstrated the effects of teacher attitudes and expectations on students' behavior at the elementary and secondary levels. Some of this research indicates that teachers often have negative attitudes toward and low expectations of students of color. Findings reported by the U.S. Civil Rights Commission (Gay, 1977) indicated that such students, particularly blacks and Latinos, receive differential treatment from teachers.

> White students receive more opportunities to participate in instructional interactions; the quality of the opportunities encourages a broader range of intellectual skills; and they receive more praise, encouragement, and reinforcement than minority students. Conversely, minority students receive fewer opportunities to participate in classroom activities, the opportunities are of a less substantive nature, and they are criticized and/or disciplined more frequently than white students. Teachers also tend to be more directive and authoritarian with minority students, and more open and democratic with white students. (Gay, 1977, p. 41)

Goodlad and Klein (1970) found in their survey of 150 classrooms that teachers sincerely believed that they were providing students with individualized instruction, encouraging inductive learning, and involving children in group processes. They did not realize the differences in their interactions with the children or the implications of these differences. Sociolinguistic studies have noted the

contrast between the individually oriented interactive style of the standard classroom and the collectively oriented interactions of minority children in their own subcultural settings (Grannis, 1979, p. 28). American Indian, Hawaiian, and migrant American black students are reluctant to compete with each other in the classroom in front of the teacher.

The experiences of students in elementary and secondary schools set the stage for their expectations and performance in college and university classrooms. Unfortunately, little research has been done on interaction in the college classroom as it is affected by race. One study provides some insight. John F. Noonan (1980) and Adelaide Simpson (1979) at Virginia Commonwealth University are currently studying interaction patterns among white teachers and black students in an effort to improve communication and learning. They have interviewed students and faculty to study the "subtle forms of communication" that "reinforce certain behavior patterns of students and the feelings they have about themselves and their learning" (Noonan, 1980, p. 1), and they have conducted faculty workshops to explore changing these patterns. Additional information about cross-cultural communication in the classroom is cited throughout the "Student-Faculty Communication Patterns."

Conclusion. This brief overview of the limited literature about the complexity of college classroom interactions analyzed for differences across gender and diverse cultural groups is amplified in subsequent sections of the "Student-Faculty Communication Patterns." Care has been taken to cite specific research and findings throughout the text so that faculty using the *Guidelines for Student-Faculty Communication* can easily find additional information to meet their needs.

ELIMINATING STEREOTYPES

Stereotyping is central to the problem of sexism and racism in classroom interaction patterns. When teachers and students at any educational level enter a classroom, they take their own values, attitudes, and socially influenced beliefs about men and women of all cultural backgrounds and what are appropriate behaviors for each. Horner states

> From the books we read, the stories we hear, and the "models" we observe, we develop an awareness of expected categorical distinctions within our society. Gradually, by a process of continual reinforcement, we adopt existing cultural norms in such a way that they become capable of exerting subtle psychological pressures on us. The exercise of these norms as internalized criteria against which we then judge the aspirations, feelings, and behavior of ourselves and others tends to perpetuate the existing categorical distinction. (Macmillan, 1975, p. v.)

Horner suggests that education is the key to ending stereotyping. Yet Sargent (1977, p. iv.) says that "much of the blame for the prevailing sex biases can be attributed to education and the part it plays in the socialization process."

The HEW publication, *Taking the Sexism Out of Education* (1978), states that "teacher's behavior is probably the most critical factor in determining whether what happens in the classroom will encourage the development of flexibility or the retention of old stereotyping practices" (p. 16). Consequently, for a faculty member continually to portray women or men in only traditional roles, or to allow students to do so, reinforces the stereotyping and has an insidious effect in terms of the restrictions imposed on both.

We are often unaware of the social and cultural differences among people, because of gender, race, ethnicity, and/or age, that affect our everyday communication. It is precisely those elements of life which are most natural, most unconscious, and most automatic which we need to examine in order to promote bias-free learning opportunities in the classroom.

Our values, attitudes, and experiences enter into our teaching in the examples and illustrations we use in our lectures, discussions, and materials. Stereotyping is an important area to examine if we wish to promote more effective communication, because students may interpret our illustrative materials as cues to our attitudes toward them and as indicators of the acceptable parameters of discussion. Tape recording or having someone observe our classes may help us discover the unconscious habits of speech and references we use while lecturing or leading discussions in class.

This use of the generic "he" is easily detected and has been the focal point of much attention. But it is also indicative of a wider pattern of ethnocentrism and androcentrism which leads us to a kind of exclusivity in our classroom presentations. Both women and students of color are often

sharply aware of the omissions of their experiences, and are grateful for and inspired by instructors who make the effort to include them in their speech patterns and substantive references.

This section focuses on eliminating stereotyping of personal, social, and occupational characteristics in classroom discussions and counteracting such stereotyping in instructional materials.

TOPIC AREA	TACTICS FOR CHANGE
GENERAL PROBLEM OF STEREOTYPING Stereotyping encompasses a wide range of issues including age, race, gender, and handicaps. Stereotypes are frequently communicated as myths or characterizations.	Myths and characterizations can be challenged by presenting varied samples of women and men.
A man's career is central to his life; a woman should have a career to fall back on, just in case she needs it.	That over 50 percent of the female population over age 10 were in the work force in 1982 shows that most women need a career. In addition, many men are realizing the pitfalls of centering their lives completely on their careers.
STEREOTYPING OF ROLES Portrayal of males and females in traditional roles can reinforce stereotypes. Family roles are most often stereotyped.	Present examples of varied lifestyles and family structures such as dual-career families, childless couples, female-headed households, singles, and other alternative living arrangements.
The 1965 Moynihan Report interpreted the large percentage of black female-headed households and high rates of illegitimacy as evidence of family disintegration. The report assumed that a woman's heading a household is wrong, and that this contributed to the failure of blacks.	Present examples of the variety of domestic strategies found in urban black communities, and emphasize the creativity and ability to cope with difficult circumstances that these strategies show.
Assumptions that all women will be or are wives and mothers, men are henpecked husbands, mothers-in-law are interfering, only women are capable of mothering are prevalent.	***Talk about men as homemakers and women as breadwinners, sharing of parenting responsibilities.***

TOPIC AREA

STEREOTYPING CHARACTERISTICS OF AN OCCUPATION

Presentations need not immediately classify men or women into specific working roles.

Avoid using secretary or nurse as she and lawyer or truckdriver as he.

Certain common phrases—"mothering nurse," "just a secretary," "career woman" but not "career men"—inadvertently present women and men in stereotypic fashion in work roles.

STEREOTYPING OF PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS

Generalizations about masculinity and feminity are often vague and may reinforce misleading stereotypes. Help students be aware of written materials and classroom discussions which attribute personality traits on the basis of sex, or portray women and men as traditional extremes.

Men are stoic and distant, women are over-emotional and dependent; men are sexually aggressive, women are passive; women cry to manipulate men; women are at fault in the negative aspects of marriage.

TACTICS FOR CHANGE

As much as possible avoid using a female or male referent when talking about an occupation.

Refer to a lawyer or secretary without saying she or he.

Various examples can be used that challenge stereotyped ideas of wo

Talk about a bank president, a nurse, a veterinarian as being either female or male.

Human behavior need not be dichotomized into masculine and feminine roles. Traits which have been characterized as masculine and feminine occur in both women and men. Generally, one's socialization process and social context will determine to what degree a person is passive or aggressive, stoic or emotional.

Point out that it is much more common to find men and women who share the same traits, emotions, etc., than to find women and men who are stereotyped extremes. Discuss why these stereotypes are still prominent in popular culture.

TOPIC AREA

STEREOTYPING OF PHYSICAL, MENTAL, AND EMOTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Cross-cultural studies indicate that whatever men do is valued more by both women and men than what women do regardless of the task (Nieva and Gulek, 1980; Chodorow, 1971).

> ***Scholarly articles were given a higher rating if ascribed to a male rather than a female author (Frieze, 1975).***

Many stereotypical assumptions about male and female abilities are unsupported by evidence. Consider the meanings and values attached to certain abilities as opposed to others.

> ***Strength is usually defined as the ability to lift heavy objects, strength in concentrated bursts, rather than as endurance, strength over time.***

> ***Males are seen as mechanical, or good with numbers, while females are artistic, or good at writing.***

Because of our expectations about appropriate feminine, and masculine, or cultural behavior, we may evaluate the same behavior differently depending on the sex or race of the student.

TACTICS FOR CHANGE

Check to see if your own or student evaluations of classwork varies because of gender, race, ethnicity, or age, and if the kinds of remarks or comments vary.

Point out the fact that women and men possess many of the same abilities. Physiological differences between women and men do not necessarily translate into differences in abilities or performance. A strength or weakness in one sex is sometimes balanced by a corresponding weakness or strength in the other sex.

Trained women athletes generally have more endurance than trained men athletes. Trained men athletes generally have more strength.

Students who bely this stereotype are found in almost any class.

Include a demonstration in class such as the one below which addresses the issue of the impact of our expectations on our evaluation of the behavior of others.

TOPIC AREA

A student comes up after class to discuss his/her ideas which may contradict yours. Is the white male taking the initiative? Is the female being too aggressive? Is the black being hostile?

Even when the same abilities are involved men may have the prestige positions.

Women are usually the cooks at home, but men are usually the chefs in restaurants.

Studies indicate that the successes of boys and men are attributed by teachers and others to their abilities, while the successes of girls and women are often attributed to luck or other external factors (Frey and Slaby, cited in Hall, 1982). Ironically, women subjected to this sort of devaluation and evaluation may be accused of not being able to take criticism when they react with anger, frustration, or feelings of helplessness. Young women internalize these values and develop doubts about their own competence (Erkut, 1979).

A professor at a recent conference on women and education at Oberlin College commented that he had women students who are very intelligent but who did not perceive themselves as such, while his male students sometimes overrated their abilities (cited in Hall, 1982).

TACTICS FOR CHANGE

A homework assignment could be an analysis and evaluation of a student paper with authorship attributed to a man for half of the class and a woman student for the other half. Discuss whether or not the evaluations differ because of gender of author or gender of evaluator.

Situations such as these can be labelled as the paradoxes or ironies that they are.

In small lecture/discussion classes, teaching students how to give responsible feedback to each other will enhance the educational experience of all students and will help to avoid the influence of stereotypic expectations. Any basic interpersonal communication text should provide guidelines for giving feedback.

At the graduate level, the self-esteem of both men and women goes down (Hall, 1982). In seminars, discussion of how students want to be evaluated and their fears about this process may be helpful.

TOPIC AREA

STEREOTYPING PEOPLE OF COLOR, OR DISABLED INDIVIDUALS

Be sensitive to situations which may inadvertently present people of color, or the disabled, in a stereotypic light.

Native Americans are drunks; epileptics are unemployable.

White women are seen as physically fragile or weak, while black women are considered strong and sturdy.

Paternalism—that is, to overindulge, over-compliment, or put someone down by indicating that their work exceeded our expectations of them—is perhaps the most common form of unintentional racism. Using positive examples of people of color or the disabled who have made achievements in various fields may be inspirational, but, if too simplistically presented, may be meaningless or harmful to students' learning.

When stereotypes concerning race, ethnicity, or disability are added to gender, the problem is compounded.

Simpson (1979) and Noonan (1980) conducted workshops with Virginia Commonwealth faculty who identified assumptions

TACTICS FOR CHANGE

When such stereotypes are voiced by students, point them out. Discuss the damaging implications of the stereotype and its unfairness to individuals. Try to be alert to stereotypic attitudes you hold and may inadvertently state.

Consider the difference between the following two sentences: (1) Cesar Chavez, a Latino who became a labor leader, publicized the living conditions of migrant workers. (2) Labor leader Cesar Chavez publicized the living conditions of migrant workers. Both sentences are factual. The first sentence carries an undertone of surprise that a Latino became a labor leader. The second gives a fact about Chavez' accomplishment, but does not have the paternalism of the first sentence. Try to avoid structures such as those in the first sentence.

The impact that compounded stereotypes have on a person's sense of self and everyday interactions can be a useful discussion topic.

Once such assumptions are identified, they can be explored and evaluated. More studies are needed to indicate how

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frequently made about black students which "limit the faculty's ability to teach" (p. 6–7):

- All black students are alike.
- Black students are either very bright or very slow.
- Black males are aggressive.
- Blacks are oversensitive.
- Blacks are not verbal.
- Blacks want to be treated specially.
- Blacks are more emotional than intellectual.
- Blacks are lacking something.
- Blacks have a poor self-concept.
- Blacks are more oriented to the concrete than the abstract.
- Blacks don't like discussion.
- Blacks don't have much to contribute in class.
- One black can speak for the rest.
- Blacks speak "black dialect."
- Most black student-white teacher complaints aren't racial problems; they are teaching problems.
- Open recognition of blackness may embarrass blacks.

Student interviews revealed that black students often feel that they have to prove themselves. They experienced additional pressures and frustrations because they had to convince the teacher and their classmates of competency. If they were considered bright, they felt they were seen as exceptions. They felt that fewer gradations of competency applied to them; they were classified as either incompetent or exceptionally bright. In the latter case, they experienced continual pressure to live up to this expectation or fall into the category of incompetent. Different assumptions

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assumptions about gender and race in the college classroom may limit not only communication but also education. Faculty may want to reflect on their experiences with students from cultural groups different from their own, to bring to light their own expectations and to examine them for cultural bias. No student appreciates the expectation that he or she cannot perform adequately in reading, composition, math, or critical thinking. The sensitive teacher will walk a line between an awareness of cultural differences and a refusal to allow such awareness to take the form of lowered expectations of "culturally disadvantaged" students.

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may be applied to other people of color or to women with the same results in students: pressure, frustration, and sometimes a marked tendency to conform to stereotypes as self-fulfilling prophecies.

STEREOTYPING IN INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Historically, most introductory level material in the social sciences has been oriented to the contributions of white men. Although some disciplines have been sensitive to this issue, all have, nevertheless, neglected gender and race issues to some degree. A still too common experience, for instance, is to find a text that does not mention any women in its history of the discipline. The major contributions of women and people of color should be included in texts.

Gender and race issues should be included in instructional materials in a numerically and qualitatively balanced fashion. This does not mean that for every man mentioned a woman must also be mentioned. Appropriate numeric balance may mean the inclusion of only one or two women when describing the history of a given discipline, or it may involve only research conducted by women when discussing a particular topic if women have made the only significant contribution to that topic. Issues should reflect the realistic and contemporary view we now have of the contributions of women and people of color both currently and historically in most disciplines.

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When reviewing instructional materials, the appropriate or inappropriate inclusion of race and gender issues related to the course can be discussed.

> ***Does the instructional material contain research about and by women, examples drawn from women's lives, contributions to the discipline made by women, and issues of concern to women of all ethnic and racial backgrounds?***

Numeric and qualitative balance and imbalance can be pointed out in class when reviewing instructional materials. Acceptable texts and media materials ought to include the following:
(1) the contributions of women and people of color that are significant to the field;

> ***Women theorists, research conducted by women, historical examples from women's lives.***

(2) issues of particular significance to women and people of color;

> ***Discrimination in the job market, credit allocation, and inheritance, violence against***

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Isolating race and gender issues in a separate section of a chapter or in a separate chapter is inappropriate.

An economics textbook that makes mention of women in the labor market only at the end of a chapter in a brief discussion under a heading such as "Other Aspects of the Labor Market."

Research cited in class discussion may contain inherent biases or weaknesses.

Citation of a study demonstrating a positive association between position in the job hierarchy and work satisfaction that fails to mention that the study sampled men only.

Psychologist Carol Gilligan points out that Piaget, Erikson, and Freud all based their theories on studies of males. Her findings lead her to conclude that women's perspective on ethical development has been omitted from what we usually consider an ethical development common to both sexes.

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women, abortion, birth control, forced sterilization, and rape.

(3) humor and language that is not biased;
(4) proportional inclusion of women and people of color in illustrations, examples, and pictures.

The isolation of race and gender topics in texts and media materials can be a class discussion topic. This is particularly appropriate for movies shown in class.

Women in the labor market should be discussed throughout an introductory economics text including, for instance, such topics as labor discrimination, labor trends, efficiency of allocation of labor . . .

Many times students accept research results without question. Encourage students to review research studies critically, and question the methods, samples, results, analyses, and interpretations of research studies. Identifying problems and pointing out shortcomings will help students avoid making false inferences.

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Inferences made from research should be well-supported by the evidence. Limitations should be discussed. Improperly drawn conclusions may have a particularly adverse effect on people of color and all women.

Rape victims are held partially responsible for the assault; inferences are made that blacks score lower on I.Q. tests because they are less intelligent.

When presenting controversial areas of research, be careful to point out and discuss both sides of the controversy. Take care to avoid the inappropriate generalization of results.

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To avoid improperly drawn conclusions, research results can be discussed thoroughly. If ways in which the results could be misinterpreted are pointed out, misinterpretation is less likely to occur.

Female rats portray a maternal instinct under laboratory conditions. However, one cannot conclude from this that females of all species have maternal instincts or that only females have maternal instincts.

LANGUAGE STRUCTURE AND USE

Language has been identified as being intrinsically linked to sexism and to gender stereotyping. Various authors have written about the influence that male dominance in society has had on the use and structure of the English language. A review of the growing literature relating to language and gender is not feasible in this document. However, evidence exists that language reform can help decrease sexism. Thorne and Henley, *Language and Sex: Difference and Dominance*, 1975, is an excellent source of information about language structure and usage.

This section will address ways in which language structure and use reflect our underlying assumptions, and perpetuate discrimination on the basis of gender and race. Language structure refers to the words themselves (vocabulary) and the rules for their use (syntax, semantics). Language use refers to our everyday implementation of these rules in the way we speak and write. Together language structure and language use contribute to our implicit model of effective communication or communicative competence. Ideally, our concept of communicative competence should include and reflect cross-cultural communication skills and the communicative styles of women and men.

Because language is so closely linked with the way we think and the attitudes we communicate, it is a logical target for instructors who want to ensure nonbiased teaching. Perhaps the crucial factor needed for nonbiased instruction is an awareness of the nature and degree to which language usage in the classroom is inadvertently biased. Such an awareness can be gained by listening to one's own language patterns (tape recordings of classroom presentations are especially helpful); by listening to others (especially students); by becoming familiar with issues in language bias; and by learning and practicing new language patterns such as those recommended in the following section (see Miller and Swift, 1976 and 1980). For example, one faculty member who participated in the CAPSS project had an observer in his large lecture class who pointed out that in all his examples he used "he" and referred to men. The faculty member had been totally unaware of this practice and was eager to change once he knew of it.

This section concerns generic usage, labeling as a form of discrimination, differences in communicative style based on gender and race, and the prospects for change in language usage.

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UNIVERSAL LANGUAGE

Terms and titles which use "man" to represent all of humanity have the effect of excluding women as participants in human activity. Research indicates that when people hear or read "he" and "man" in a generic context they rarely visualize females; generic terms are not integrated in a neutral way (Martyna, 1978). The generic use of masculine terminology also implies that the male is the norm in society.

"Man," "mankind," and "the family of man," "the rise of man," "great men in history."

Similarly, terms that denote a universal meaning but which are, in fact, specific should also be avoided.

"Mothering instinct," "gentlemen's agreement."

Gender-Specific Titles or Terms The use of gender-specific titles or terms when referring to either neutral objects or to groups composed of women and men is not only inaccurate, but is also stereotypic and should therefore be avoided.

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Generic language can be avoided once it is identified.

Substitute "people" for "man," "world's peoples" for "mankind"; change from "the rise of man" to "the rise of civilization" or "the rise of humanity"; change from "great men in history" to "great figures in history."

A variety of other words can be used to denote both sexes.

Human, human beings, individuals, persons, society.

Use "parenting" instead of "mothering instinct," "mutual understanding" instead of "gentlemen's agreement."

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Gender-specific titles and terms are often used when referring to occupations or positions that are not, in fact, gender-specific. The list of such terms is almost endless.

> ***"Chairman," "housewife," "salesman," "fireman," and "steward/stewardess," "businessman," "co-ed," "working man," "repairman," and "forefathers."***

Personification of inanimate objects should be avoided. For example, female referencing to ships and cars is inappropriate unless the object is specifically gender-referenced as *The Queen Mary*.

> ***"Have you seen my new sports car? She's really beautiful."***

Addressing a class, or any group, in sex specific terms, discounts members of the class or group who are of the opposite sex.

> ***To address a class as "you guys" or to say "Suppose your wife . . ." discounts women in the class.***

Animals should be referred to as "it" unless the sex is specified.

> ***"The horse ate his hay."***

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Neuter terms can be used when a term or title does not refer specifically to a person of a particular sex. Neuter terms exist for almost all occupations and positions.

> ***"Chairman" becomes "chair" or "chairperson"; "housewife"-"homemaker"; "salesman"-"salesperson"; "fireman"-"firefighters"; and "steward/stewardess"-"flight attendant"; "coed"-"student"; "working men"-"workers"; and "forefathers"-"ancestors" or "forebears."***

Inanimate objects should be referred to as "it." Hurricanes, once given only female names, now alternate between male and female names.

> ***"Have you seen my new sports car? It's really beautiful."***

Always use terminology that includes all members of the group being addressed.

> ***"What do you students think about . . ." or "Suppose your spouse . . ."***

Either make the animal's sex specific or refer to it in neuter terms.

> ***"The stallion ate his hay," "The mare ate her hay," or "The horse ate its hay."***

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Do not use labels such a male/female or masculine/feminine to denote general characteristics.

> ***"The first grade girls chose typically feminine gifts." "He has very feminine interests." "She is a tomboy."***

Gender Referencing Gender referencing permeates our everyday language and the classroom is no exception. Instructors, students, textbooks, and media materials often employ extensive, and generally inappropriate, gender referencing, although there has been considerable change in the last five years. A great deal of gender referencing is a function of habit, and, as we all know, habits are hard to break.

> ***"The farmer uses his fertilizer to . . . ," "The nurse gets her uniform . . ."***

> ***"The accountant uses her ledger to . . . ," "The worker explained to his boss that . . . ," "The nurse did not know what she needed for . . ."***

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Specify exactly what is being referred to.

> ***"The first grade girls chose dolls, clothes, and games as gifts." "He likes to cook and sew." "She enjoys basketball and soccer."***

Several methods of avoiding bias due to gender referencing are listed: (1) An easily employed technique to avoid gender referencing is to use plural nouns.

> ***Simply substitute farmers/their as in "Farmers use their fertilizer to . . ." "Nurses get their uniforms . . ."***

(2) One of the most overlooked methods of avoiding gender referencing is to simply delete the sex referent. Such a deletion may call for some slight sentence restructuring to maintain grammatical correctness.

> ***"The accountant uses a ledger to . . . ," "The worker explained to the boss that . . . ," "The nurse did not know what was needed for . . ."***

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"The psychologist conducting the seminar said that . . . ," "He further stated that . . ."

"A truck driver must spend long hours in his truck." "A nurse must always put her patient first."

A large portion of class time may revolve around an issue involving two parties. For instance, several class periods may be used to discuss the therapist/client relationship in psychology, the dynamics of labor/management interaction in economics, or the conflict between street gangs and enforcement agencies in sociology. For example, in discussing the therapist/client relationship, it would be extremely difficult to avoid referring to either the therapist or the client as he or she.

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(3) Often alternate, neuter describers can be used in place of he or she. For instance, if discussing a psychologist, the terms therapist, or psychotherapist may sometimes be alternately substituted for psychologist thus avoiding the need to use sex referents.

"The psychologist conducting the seminar said that . . . ," "The therapist further stated that . . ."

Usually, more than one word can be used to describe the same person.

Worker, employee, and laborer can all be used to refer to the same individual.

(4) Another approach is to use verb forms rather than nouns.

"Truck driving requires long hours." "Nursing involves putting the patient's well-being first."

(5) A method of instruction which is easily employed eliminates this problem. Instead of using third person referents, first person (I/my) and second person (you/your) referents are substituted. The instructor, in effect, is cast in the role of one party being discussed and the class in the role of the second party to the issue. An endless number of issues can be discussed using this method while completely avoiding the habitual use of sex-specific referents. Discussions of this sort are not awkward or stilted, but flow naturally and easily.

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"Suppose the therapist has an angry client. In order for him to understand her anger, he might ask her . . ."

"If the men felt their rights were being ignored, they could petition management with a list of their grievances. If management ignored that, the truck drivers could . . ."

"If an individual were in a situation necessitating applying for public assistance, how would he feel about . . ."

"If a sociologist wants to know more about this, he may consult . . ."

LABELING

Mary Daly (1972), Dale Spender (1981), Cheris Kramarae (1980) and others have talked about the power of naming and its importance in regard to the position of

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"Suppose you (the class) are an angry client and I (the instructor) am your therapist. In order to understand your anger, I might ask you . . ."

Another variation employs the use of first and third person plural forms in much the same way as the singular format.

An instructor might cast we/us in the role of labor and they/them in the role of management as in, "If we felt our rights were being ignored, we could first petition them with a list of our grievances. If they ignored that, we could . . ."

Although this method seems to work especially well with two parties, other variations also are effective. For example, if only one party is the topic of discussion, the class might be used to represent that party.

"If you (the class) were in a situation necessitating applying for public assistance, how would you feel about . . ."

(6) Combined and/or alternating referents can be used.

"If a sociologist wants to know more about this, he or she may consult . . ." or at one time refer to lawyer "he," then next example, doctor "she."

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women in American society. In general, words associated with men or masculinity tend to have a positive connotation, while those associated with women are negative or trivializing (See Miller, Swift, 1976; Spender, 1980). Stanley (1977) found that there were 220 terms in the dictionary referring to women's sexuality and only 22 referring to men's. See dictionary for synonyms for men, male, masculine compared to women, female, feminine.

Labeling is also of primary importance in the subtle and not-so-subtle forms of discrimination that occur in the daily lives of people of color. "Whites are not subjected to the same abusive characterizations by our language that people of color receive," just as men are not subjected to the same abusive terminology, especially in reference to their sexuality, as women are.[4]

Labeling has a way of keeping people in their places in a variety of ways. Beyond the clearly derogatory terms, such as "nigger," "chink," "spick," "chick," or "broad" are many terms which imply a patronizing attitude, indicating a superior-inferior relationship.

"Boy," "girl" for a person clearly too old to be a boy or girl; "you people"; "credit to your race."

[4]Many of the examples in this section were taken from *Racism in the English Language: A Lesson Plan and Study Essay* by Robert B. Moore. New York: The Council on Interracial Books, 1976.

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Use "man," "woman," or "male," "female" for boy and girl. If you are referring to a group, rather than saying "you people," you can support your statement statistically and specifically define the group to which the statistics refer. Such phrases as a "credit to your race" should be replaced by phrases which refer to the

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Often the context of the usage of terms is crucial, especially in the case of non-parallel terminology. The following examples use qualifying adjectives which appear to be in praise but are really put-downs.

"Well-dressed Negro officials and their wives." (Does this imply that white government officials were not well-dressed and none had husbands?) (Moore, 1976, p. 13).

"Dirk Mudge, who as senior elected administrator of the country is a kind of acting Prime Minister . . . Daniel Tijongarero, an intelligent Herero tribesman who is a member of SWAPO . . ." (Moore, 1976, p. 13)

"Dr. George Nielsen and Kathy Wayne (also a physician)."

"We're looking for a qualified black, Asian, Latino woman . . ." (Why isn't the qualified assumed as it would be for white male candidates?) (Moore, 1979, p. 14).

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individual's worth, such as "Your work is outstanding."

Negro officials and their spouses.

"Dirk Mudge, acting Prime Minister . . . Daniel Tijongarero, a Herero tribesman who is a member of SWAPO."

Dr. George Nielsen and Dr. Katherine Wayne, or George Nielsen, M.D., and Katherine Wayne, M.D.

"An Affirmative Action Employer. Minorities and women encouraged to apply."

Develop effective communication skills by knowing the words and phrases that are offensive to people of color and women of all races, avoid using these words, and discourage their use among students.

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Non-Parallel Terminology The use of non-parallel terms when referring to women and men in the same category gives the appearance of being biased or prejudiced.

> ***Referring to the class as "men and ladies" or "men and girls" would be using non-parallel terms.***

Another example of non-parallel language is reference to a woman's appearance and family without similar reference to a man's appearance and family. Butler (1978) gives the following examples.

> ***The candidates were Bryan K. Wilson, President of American Electronics, Inc., and Florence Greenwood, a pert blonde grandmother of five.***

> ***"The doctor and his dentist wife were killed in a small plane crash." (excerpt from a newspaper)***

Women as a Special Category Another pattern of linguistic bias is placing women in a special category.

> ***A man who is an economist will not be referred to as a "man economist" or a "male economist," but his female counterpart will often be distinguished***

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Within the same context of reference, parallel terms when referring to women and men should be used.

> ***Parallel terms are men/women, boys/girls, guys/gals, female/male, and gentlemen/ladies.***

> ***"The candidates were Bryan K. Wilson, President of American Electronics, Inc., and Florence Greenwood, credit manager of Bloominghill's Department Store," or "The candidates were Bryan K. Wilson, a sprightly silver-haired father of three and Florence Greenwood, a pert, blond grandmother of five."***

> ***"A doctor and dentist, who were husband and wife, were killed in a small plane crash."***

If noting that the economist is female is necessary, use the appropriate third person pronouns in the sentence.

> ***Dr. Smith, a noted economist, made an important discovery when she . . .***

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by her sex as "the woman economist," or a "female economist." This implies that economists are presumed to be male.	
At times women's exploits may be trivialized.	
"John Tyler is a world champion skier, and Karen Jones has won some of the world championships for women."	***"John Tyler and Karen Jones are world champion skiers."***
Blaming the Victim Blaming the victim involves using terminology that blames the oppressed for their oppressions, and using the passive tense to avoid placing blame or giving credit.	
Culturally deprived, economically disadvantaged, underdeveloped.	***Alternate terms are culturally dispossessed, economically exploited, and over-exploited.***
While neither set of terminology is value free, recognizing the point of view inherent in official terminology is important. Within the disciplines similar terminology may be demeaning to women and people of color without our awareness of the implications of these terms.	
Words like "tribe," "primitive," and "native" tend to minimize the complexity and diversity of the cultures so labeled (Moore, 1976, p. 8).	***"Primitive" can be replaced by other adjectives which refer to specific culture, as in pre-Columbian art rather than primitive art, or by sometimes more accurate words such as ancient farming techniques rather than primitive farming techniques. Using the term "houses" or "dwellings" instead of "huts"***

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The use of the passive tense removes the agent of the action. It can be used to erase the accomplishments of people of color and all women.

> ***"The continental railroad was built." (Moore, 1976, p. 9)***

It can also be used to avoid placing blame.

> ***She was raped. Japanese people were interned in camps throughout the West during WWII. Slaves were brought to America. (Moore, 1976, p. 9)***

Another way of blaming the victim is picking out a member of a non-dominant group who has done something we disapprove of and saying he or she has "given the whole group a bad name." It is not the person inside the group who gives other members a bad name, but those outside it who support their prejudices by isolated examples.

> ***"We had a woman sports reporter once, but she just didn't work out," or "I had to fire that Latino supervisor. They just don't know how to handle that kind of responsibility."***

Minority groups are often made accountable for their members' actions. Majority groups are not held responsible for the failings of their members in the same way.

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has connotations beyond architectural design.

Chinese laborers built the continental railroad.

Two armed men raped her. The U.S. Government interned American citizens of Japanese descent in camps throughout the West during WWII. Europeans captured Africans and brought them to America as slaves.

Imagine saying: "We had a man sports reporter, but he just didn't work out," or "I had to fire that white supervisor. They just don't know how to handle that kind of responsibility."

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COMMUNICATIVE STYLES

Communicative styles refer to our characteristic ways of speaking based on how we learned language and communication skills. As teachers we can be aware of our own ways of speaking and how they differ from other speaking styles. Misunderstandings easily arise from mismatched communication codes. For example, the vocabulary used in lectures may be assumed to be shared by all although it reflects a particular class and cultural background. But more important than the acknowledgment of differences is the awareness of the values we attach to them.

(1) Gay (1977) points out that the vernaculars of people of color may seem like slang to someone who speaks a dialectal variation closer to Standard American English, but they should not be treated as such.

Awareness of how the dialects students speak may affect evaluations of competence is crucial. If a student has an accent or dialectal variation different from ours, do we unconsciously expect less or take the student less seriously? Do we expect to find more grammatical errors in her or his papers, and therefore do we?

Understanding how differing speech styles may restrict communication in the classroom is essential.

More importantly we may begin to understand the additional burden placed on students who have to do more extensive code switching in the classroom.

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A person's way of speaking is an important part of her or his personal cultural heritage and need not be minimized or discredited in the teaching of Standard American English.

Studies have shown that in job interviews an interviewee who talks in a similar manner to the interviewer is more likely to get the job. However, no one has studied whether this finding can be generalized to the college classroom.

The development of cross-cultural communication skills enables faculty to facilitate communication with and among their students.

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No one is free of cultural biases, and stereotyping on the basis of language usage may occur among people of color as well as whites.

> ***A black student in a public speaking class asked an Asian student where she was from. Because of her dialect he assumed she was not from America. The Asian student said she was from San Francisco and asked where he was from. Some students laughed, but tension and misunderstanding were clearly present. Underlying this incident was the assumption that his dialect (a form of black English) was an acceptable variation of Standard American English but hers was not.***

(2) Women have historically been prohibited from speaking in public; when they have been permitted to speak they have been criticized for deviating from male standards, higher pitched voices which are interpreted as being less authoritative, greater use of pitch range which is interpreted as too emotional, and a rise in pitch at the end of a sentence. These characteristics are associated with uncertainty, lack of self-confidence, and deference.

Other characteristics associated with women's speech are excessive politeness, hypercorrect grammar, extensive use of qualifiers, and tag questions. (Women don't really use more tag

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As we develop our skills in cross-cultural communication we can better bridge the gap between different cultures while enhancing our students' ability to do the same.

Studies of speech evaluations done by students and teachers have not been conclusive (Pearson, 1979, 1980; Hensley and Waggoner, 1979) as to differences in ratings attributable to gender. If students give oral presentations in class which other students evaluate, the evaluations of women and men in terms of ratings and kinds of comments made can be compared.

These speech patterns can be interpreted as indicating expressiveness rather than emotionality, and a desire to encourage response rather than deference. Such interpretations support the argument that

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questions, do they?) These characteristics are associated with low status and little power. Such characteristics place women's speech in a double-bind. To use "feminine" speech is to sound powerless in comparison with "masculine" speech but to use "masculine" speech is to risk being labeled unfeminine, too aggressive, a bitch, etc.

To the extent such verbal qualities are characteristic of women, they are related to male/female interaction. Women in and outside the classroom have found they are less often listened to, their remarks are credited to men rather than themselves, they are more often interrupted, and they are less often called on in meetings and classes. This kind of treatment obviously affects their communication patterns.

ATTITUDINAL CHANGE

Faculty members are becoming increasingly aware of the desirability of changing their speech patterns. Analysis of classroom presentations that were part of this study showed faculty members in a transitional stage between traditional forms of speech and non-sexist speech.

Such change is bound to feel awkward from time to time and require practice. However, Bate (1978) demonstrated that speakers can change their habits of biased language usage through conscious effort, given the information and the support necessary for change.

People generally feel awkward and unsure of themselves when learning a foreign language. Words do not feel right at

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women's speech encourages communication so that an instructor and/or students can regard "feminine" speech as effective instead of powerless.

Audio or video recordings can be very helpful in analyzing speech characteristics. To what extent do differences in styles of speech affect responses to students? Do we tend to dismiss a student who uses a "feminine" speech style and assume that she doesn't know what she is talking about?

The use of non-biased language is similar to learning a foreign language. It requires constant awareness and practice

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first and it is a constant effort to use words and speech patterns that are foreign. The initial discomfort associated with a new language is, however, overcome with continued practice. One example is the transition that has been made from use of the term "colored" to "Negro" to the currently preferable term "black," or "people of color." Many faculty felt uneasy with the initial use of the term "black" but, with repeated use, have become comfortable with it.

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before it can become second nature. The instructor is encouraged to try out some of the "new language" presented here and to practice the use of non-biased language until it becomes comfortable and spontaneous. Many people discover that they not only speak in the new language but think it as well.

CLASSROOM INTERACTION PATTERNS

Interaction with students within and outside the classroom should be qualitatively similar for all students. However, evidence exists that gender and race may affect classroom interaction. Interactional differences that occur in the university classroom, or outside the classroom but in an educational context, can contribute to sexual or racial inequities. Research findings are complicated. Interaction can vary by subject matter, size of the class, ratio of women and men, or sex of the instructor, making it impossible to generalize findings to every classroom.

We may be reluctant to tackle the issues of gender and race in the classrooms, even though we know they affect communication. Conflicts may arise among students or between ourselves and students. However, the classroom as a microcosm of the larger society is a laboratory for learning. Our students give us an opportunity for feedback about classroom interaction patterns.

Education is a two-way process involving verbal and nonverbal communication. Even when we are lecturing, we are constantly receiving from students nonverbal feedback such as eye contact, facial expressions, posture, and body movements that affects what we say and how we say it. We communicate both content and attitude in the examples we use and the way we use them. Our experience tells us that no two classes have the same dynamics. A lecture which leads to an exciting discussion in one class may stir no interest in the next.

We have no easy answers to the question of how to create classroom interaction patterns which encourage the participation of all students. Too much depends on the diversity of our students and the classroom climate. The key is to express, and to encourage students' expression of, diversified experiences, without putting students on the spot or making assumptions about their experiences based on race or gender.

The observations in this section are drawn from the research literature and from the classroom analysis that was part of the CAPSS project. They are included not as conclusive evidence but to provoke a reflection and examination of the interactional dynamics that occur in classrooms.

This section considers differences in women and men's participation in the classroom; their verbal and nonverbal interaction patterns, including cross-cultural considerations; and the destructive and constructive uses of humor in the classroom.

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CLASSROOM PARTICIPATION

Students are responsible for some of the differential interaction that occurs. Classroom observations that were part of the CAPSS project showed a higher participation rate among males, relative to their representation in the classes. Participation includes asking questions, responding to questions, and making other comments to the instructor or class.

Since participation is often a part of a student's grade and certainly part of the learning process, we want to find ways to encourage the participation of all students, especially those who may have felt discouraged in the past. We want to avoid inadvertently discouraging any students.

Data collected from administration of over 2,000 Student Perception Questionnaires in introductory social science courses at Utah State University and at six institutions in Northern California indicated differences, based on gender and race, in students' perceptions of interaction in the classroom. Overall, women indicated that they individually participated less than men. They did not always perceive women as a group participating less than men. This supports the contention that women are often perceived as talking more than men, when in fact they talk less (Kramarae, 1980).

One faculty member, analyzing the survey results for his class, found no gender differences but noted that the Asian

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In a lecture/discussion class, keep a tally for a few class periods of how many women and men talk and for how long during class discussions. Who asks the most questions and who makes the most comments? Whose comments are most positively reinforced? Who disagrees with the teacher or other students? These tabulations can be analyzed for possible differences by gender or race. Do certain groups of students emerge as frequent or infrequent participators? The "Student Perception Questionnaire" can be administered to reveal perceived patterns of interaction. Comparing the results of tallies with the results of the questionnaire may provide interesting feedback about differences in perception.

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students perceived him as calling on them less and objected to his use of humor. He has sensed there might be a problem, and was now hoping to use these results to find a solution.

The majority of women students who indicated that they chose to remain silent (Student Perception Questionnaire results) did so because they did not want to participate or felt insecure about participating and because of differential treatment during interactions inside and outside the classroom. For example, research indicates that faculty are less likely to pursue issues raised by female students (Thorne, 1979); that they may give male students more time to respond to questions (Sadker and Sadker, unpublished); and that women are less often called on than men (Karp and Yoels, 1976).

Hall (1982) identified 15 factors which can discourage women students from participating in class. Factors not already mentioned are that women, relative to men, are (1) taken less seriously, (2) recognized less often when they volunteer to participate, (3) coached less often toward a full answer, and (4) asked "lower order" questions. The cumulative effect of all factors can have a strong impact on classroom participation.

"If a woman doesn't understand something, she is dismissed. If

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In laboratories, faculty can monitor which students they spend more time with and how procedures are explained. Studies indicate that instructors tend to give male students the necessary information to complete the project themselves, while doing the work for female students instead of explaining it to them (Sadker and Sadker, 1982; and Sofilios-Rothschild, 1980).

Women can be encouraged to participate in class discussion. Calling on women as well as men to answer questions when they raise their hands and consciously making eye contact with women to encourage questions and responses are two strategies to increase participation.

Expectations for participation should be the same for women and men. It may help to tell the class about these expectations.

One faculty member noticed the disproportional participation by males in one of her classes, drew this to the attention of the class, and asked why. The most common element in the responses was surprise. After class, women students indicated they had learned years before that women were to be seen and not heard.

With indicators that women are insecure or ambivalent about participating, they

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a male doesn't understand, he gets further attention." (Heyman, 1977, cited in Hall, 1982, p. 8)

"Women who ask questions are not answered, so women have stopped asking questions." (Heyman, 1977, cited in Hall, 1982, p. 8)

These issues are particularly acute with older students, women of color, and women in traditionally "masculine" fields.

Black students at Virginia Commonwealth University (Noonan, 1980, and Simpson, 1979) indicated that they often felt ignored by faculty or put down.

Sometimes I am quite reluctant to ask questions because of the put downs of the instructor. He often looks at me in disbelief when I do respond correctly. Usually, however, I don't even get recognized and I feel, why bother? (Noonan, 1980, p. 4)

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may need additional encouragement and reinforcement to overcome their early acculturation and their previous experiences in the classroom.

Recent studies have shown that participation rates are higher and more equitable among female and male students in clases taught by women (Karp and Yoels, 1976). Studies are currently underway to identify the verbal and nonverbal behaviors of women faculty that might account for this difference.

Faculty are often unaware of such perceptions and thus cannot alter the situation. The "Student Perception Questionnaire" is designed to alert faculty to these perceptions.

In another instance, an instructor was afraid of "hurting the feelings" of a black woman in class by offering criticism of her work, yet felt frustrated because the student's work showed no real improvement. We encouraged the instructor not to withhold her criticism, pointing out

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Other students state similar feelings of being ignored.

> ***As one black female medical student explained, "It takes an extra effort to assert oneself and to be accepted by white peers and faculty." (Simpson, p. 3)***

Just as students may interpret our behavior in ways we did not anticipate, so too faculty misinterpret student behavior, especially in the context of cross-cultural communication.

VERBAL INTERACTION

Although popular mythology maintains that women talk more than men, current research indicates men usually talk more than women, take longer turns at talk, and control the topic of conversation in both formal and informal settings. Men interrupt women's speech more frequently than women interrupt the speech of men. Men exert conversational control, not only through sheer quantity of speech, but also through interruptions (Zimmerman and West, 1975). Women, on the other hand, do the interactional work of drawing others into the conversation, offering encouragement for contributions made, tying topics together (Fishman, 1978), and meeting people's

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> ***that to do so is to keep an important resource from the student (Noonan, p. 5).***

A (white) teacher has learned not to interpret the silence of some black students as sullenness. Now he provides more time for students to frame replies to questions in class. Another teacher has come to realize how labeling outspokenness in white students as "assertive" while calling it "aggressive" in blacks is tendentious (Noonan, p. 5).

Faculty can develop an awareness of these patterns as they are perpetuated in the classroom and bring them to the attention of students. Faculty can direct students to listen, not interrupt, and to share discussion time. Faculty can try to develop an awareness of interruptions of speech that occur before, during, and immediately following a class, including whom they interrupt and patterns of interruption among students. Are women interrupted disproportionately? Do certain subjects trigger more discussion or interruptions? Faculty can insist that participants be allowed to complete their thoughts without interruption.

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socio-emotional needs as well as the task at hand (Jenkins, 1980).

Addressing Students by Name Faculty may know the names of more men than women students. Being addressed by name has a positive effect on self-image. It can also give those students who are known an advantage with regard to job referrals, recommendations to graduate schools, incentives to seek out the faculty member after class, etc.

Credibility Women students, as well as women faculty, have more difficulty than men in establishing credibility in the classroom and in discussion groups. This is related to established linguistic differences between women and men, with male speech patterns being the more highly valued. Studies indicate that the actual differences between the speech of women and men are not as great as perceived differences are (Jenkins and Kramer, 1978).

Another way in which men may maintain verbal dominance over women is through reference to their appearance and sexuality.

"I have yet to hear a professor comment on the daily appearance

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Faculty can easily check the number of students they know by name by simply writing down names of all the students in a particular class. If there is a disproportional representation of students' names by sex or race, an effort can be made to learn the names of those unequally represented on their list.

Learning the correct pronunciation of names of students of Latino, Asian, and Pacific Island descent is one way of letting these students know you appreciate their heritage. Students also appreciate being asked how they wished to be addressed, e.g., African names may not be listed on "official" class lists.

Faculty can react to the speech patterns of women and men in a qualitatively similar manner. The tendency exists for men, at least in small group discussions, to disqualify what women say. For example, this may be done by attributing what a woman says to a man without realizing it. A study of who raises, develops, and drops topics in seminars and classrooms can be done to see if there are patterns related to gender. Tape recording of classes provides insight into interaction patterns.

Men sometimes find it difficult to understand how compliments can be demeaning

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of a male colleague. I have yet to go through a week without some comment pertaining to my appearance." (Women's Studies Coalition, 1980, as cited in Hall, 1982, p. 6).

"You're too young and pretty to be an assistant professor."

While such remarks may be intended as complimentary, they often have the effect of dismissing what a woman is saying or subtly demeaning her as a serious student or professional.

NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION

Female/Male Differences Nonverbal behaviors also need to be examined for possible incongruity in regard to women and men. This includes eye contact, gestures, postures, and location in room while lecturing. Thorne (1970, p. 15) relates the story of a woman faculty member whose students drew to her attention that when she asked a question in class, she tended more often to make eye contact—which invited response—with men rather than with women students. Eye contact, however, involves two parties. It may be that more female students avoid eye contact.

Men exhibit dominance nonverbally, as well as verbally. Henley (1977) reports that men tend to take up more space, to use more forceful gestures, to touch women more than they are touched, and to maintain direct eye contact. In

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to women. But men's credibility and commitment are not questioned in the academic setting the way women's often are, and they do not have to juggle the roles of being "feminine" and being "professional" the way women do. Role reversals can sometimes clarify why such comments are embarrassing to women.

Nonverbal communication can occur through a number of body movements and gestures such as a smile or a frown; turning away when a student is speaking versus leaning or stepping forward as if with interest; establishing and maintaining eye contact versus avoidance of eye contact or looking down at lecture notes. Study of nonverbal behaviors could be made by an invited observer or by using video tape. Video taping may reveal mixed messages, such as encouraging a student verbally ("Please continue."), while discouraging her nonverbally (reading one's notes or showing an impatient expression).

The display of dominant or submissive behaviors may be observed in the classroom and brought to the attention of students. They are most often observed between people of different statuses, including students and teachers.

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contrast, Frieze and Ramsey (1976) point out that nonverbal behavior associated with femininity (lowering of the eyes, smiling, etc.) also communicates low status and submission.

> ***Teachers tend to touch students more than the reverse. Nonreciprocal touch is a sign of dominance rather than affection.***

Cultural Differences Students of color are likely to be bicultural if not multicultural, so that they will be familiar with a variety of nonverbal, as well as verbal, codes. We also have a significant number of students who were not born in the United States who may be bridging more than exterior cultural differences. Such nonverbal interactions as the amount of space between speakers, the relationship between who stands and who sits, the extent of body contact, etc., may all have different meanings in different cultural and role contexts.

Seating Patterns Evidence shows that classroom participation is related to seating patterns. More discussion occurs among students sitting at the front and down the middle of a classroom.

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Faculty cannot adapt their behavior to the cultural backgrounds of every student. They can, through awareness of differences, avoid some misunderstandings. An articulation of the differences in certain situations can be instructive for everyone.

Is there a pattern of seating in your classroom by sex and/or people of color? If certain groups routinely sit at the side or near the back of a classroom, is it by choice or because no other seats are available? If by choice, what is the reason? Perhaps efforts should be made to draw those students into discussion. Does the choice lead to different communication behaviors?

USES OF HUMOR

Although humor in the classroom is seldom intended to hurt or demean others, it may convey stereotypical attitudes and bias. This area requires particular

A faculty member who administered the Student Perception Questionnaire discovered that a substantial number of his students who were not U.S. citizens

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sensitivity on the part of the instructor, as students may reinforce even blatantly inappropriate humor. Thus, student laughter or positive response does not ensure that one's statements are inoffensive to all class members. A variety of ways to identify and eliminate inappropriate humor follows.

Humorous Reference to Physical or Sexual Characteristics Humorous or teasing reference to the physical or sexual characteristics of students in the class is inappropriate. Comments which are intended to be complimentary may be demeaning.

> ***"Sorry, I didn't hear the question—I was momentarily distracted," a male professor says with a smile, as he looks at a pretty woman student who just came in.***

When women or men are portrayed only in regard to their physical attributes, stereotypes are reinforced. Therefore, reference to the physical characteristics of others, such as current sex symbols, is also generally inappropriate.

Humorous Treatment of Serious Topics Serious topics are often treated in a humorous way, thus downplaying their significance, when an instructor or students are uncomfortable or tense about a topic and wish to lighten the atmosphere. Such use may be offensive to some students and convey biased attitudes.

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objected to his use of humor. He suspected they were uncertain of the meaning the jokes because of difficulties they were having with the English language. These students felt alienated from the class and the instructor, and they felt vulnerable about being the victims of the jokes. With this knowledge, the instructor was able to look for ways to overcome the problem.

> ***Ideally, the professor should have been listening carefully enough so that he would not have been distracted. If he nevertheless was, he can simply say, "Sorry, I didn't hear the question."***

Serious topics should be discussed as such, without the use of humor which downplays their importance. Inappropriate laughter by students during such discussion can be confronted. The instructor may use the laughter as a springboard for a discussion of why a particular topic is difficult to talk about in our society, and/or to point out the

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The use of untimely humor when discussing serious and sensitive issues such as rape, mental illness, alcohol or drug abuse, sexual deviance, the Equal Rights Amendment.

Humorous Treatment of Students' Comments The use of students' comments, questions, or answers as the basis for jokes by the instructor should be avoided. Such humor is demeaning to students in the class and may discourage further participation.

Constructive Humor Humor can be used in constructive ways to point out stereotypical and contradictory beliefs.

Consider to what audience the humor is directed. Who is the object of the joke?

The stereotype of gay men or gay men themselves.

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tension-reducing function of laughter and humor.

"I noticed that some of you laughed when I brought up the topic of sexual harrassment. Why do you think such laughter occurs?" or "I'm noticing a lot of you laughing, even though this topic is very serious and/or tragic for a number of people. It is a little uncomfortable talking about things we don't usually discuss, isn't it?"

Students' contributions to class should be treated with courtesy and respect, even when inaccurate or unsophisticated. Students' derogatory remarks should be called to the attention of the class and discontinued.

Role reversal is often a good way to point out the foolishness or limited perspective of stereotypes we hold about others. Advertising and media provide numerous examples: Imagine Mr. Folger coming into your kitchen. Imagine *Bridegroom Magazine*.

Good examples of humor for eliminating gender stereotyping may be found in such anthologies as: *Free To Be You and Me* (Marlo Thomas, et al., 1974) and *Pulling Our Own Strings: Feminist Humor and Satire* (Kaufman and Blakely, 1980). Humor dealing with racial stereotypes can be found in *Mother Wit from the Laughing Barrel* (Dundes, 1981).

STUDENT-FACULTY COMMUNICATION CHECKLIST

Faculty may find it difficult to be aware of the interactional dynamics in the classroom while simultaneously transmitting lecture content or guiding a discussion. Below is a brief summary of key points from the previous sections arranged in a convenient checklist.

A. Techniques
   1. Have a friend, colleague, or teaching assistant observe some specific behaviors of your own or your students that you want carefully observed. This informal observation may give a perspective on that behavior about which you were not aware.
   2. A student can tape record some of your classes. Self analysis of tapes can provide answers to questions such as:
      - What language patterns am I using? Is there a regular use of male referencing, or the generic "he," or the universal "man?" Are stereotypical assumptions about men and women or people of color revealed in classroom dialogue?
      - Are examples and anecdotes drawn from men's lives or white culture only?
      - Can differential patterns of reinforcement be detected from the tapes?

B. Classroom Interactions
   1. Are you conscious of sex- or race-related expectations you may hold about student performance?
   2. How do you react to uses of language (accent, dialect, etc.) that depart from standard English or that are different from your own? Do you discount the speaker's intelligence and information?
   3. What is the number of males versus females or students of various racial groups called on to answer questions? Which students do you call by name? Why?
   4. Which of these categories of students participate in class more frequently through answering questions or making comments? Is the number disproportional enough that you should encourage some students to participate more frequently?
   5. Do interruptions occur when an individual is talking? If so, who does the interrupting? If one group of students is dominating classroom interaction,. what do you do about it?
   6. Is your verbal response to students positive? Aversive? Encouraging? Is it the same for all students? If not, what is the reason? (Valid reasons occur from time to time for reacting or responding to a particular student in a highly specific manner.)
   7. Do you tend to face or address one section of the classroom more than others? Do you establish eye contact with certain students more than others? What are the gestures, postures, and facial expressions used; and are they different for men, women, or people of color?

C. Texts, Lectures and Course Content

1. Do you and the texts you choose use language that is sex-neutral? If your texts use the masculine generic, do you point this out in the classroom?
2. Do your texts and lectures incorporate new research and theory about men, women, and people of color? If not, do you point out areas in which scholarship about gender and race is modifying the discipline? Do you provide additional bibliographic references for students who want to pursue these issues? When you order books for the library, do they reflect these changes in the discipline?
3. Do your lectures and texts portray the activities, achievements, concerns, and experiences of women and people of color? If your texts do not, do you provide supplemental materials? Do you bring omissions to the attention of your students?
4. Do your lectures and texts present the careers, roles, interests, and abilities of women and people of color without stereotyping? If there are stereotypes in your texts, do you point this out?
5. Do your lectures and texts use balanced examples and illustrations (both verbal and graphic) in terms of gender and race? If your texts do not, do you point this out?
6. Do your texts and lectures reflect values that are free of sex and race bias, and, if not, do you discuss your/their biases and values with your students?
7. Do your exams and assignments encourage students to explore the roles, status, contributions, and experiences of women and people of color?

STUDENT PERCEPTION QUESTIONNAIRE[5]

The interaction of communication patterns with gender and race in the academic setting is complex and not yet adequately researched. Some evidence, however, indicates that males participate in classroom discussion more than females in both the number of interactions and length of interactions, that men interrupt women more often than women interrupt men, that women's speech tends to be devalued, and that men are expected to be more articulate and credible than women (Thorne, 1979). Evidence also exists to indicate that women choose not to participate in classroom discussions because they feel insecure. Little research has been done on cross-cultural interaction patterns in American college classrooms.

In view of this information, faculty members should find it helpful to have some means of learning about the interaction patterns occurring in their own classrooms. During the CAPSS project various approaches were considered. One possible approach was to develop a procedure for gathering an objective, quantifiable record of selected classroom interactions. This approach, however, posed two problems. One was that many classroom interactions are subtle and difficult to record accurately. For example, they may consist of no more than eye contact with an individual or group of individuals. This led to the second problem. To use this type of measurement instrument in a classroom setting necessitates training individuals to act as observers and recorders. It would also be necessary to attain appropriate measures of interrater reliability. Even if these two problems were not insurmountable the approach was inconsistent with the CAPSS project plan to develop instruments and procedures that could be easily used by faculty members for self-assessment purposes.

To meet the criteria of ease of administration and self-assessment, and to provide information about classroom dynamics, the idea of using feedback from students regarding classroom interaction patterns was considered. For example, we wanted to develop a means for faculty to learn if their students feel as though they have the opportunity to participate in class discussion or ask questions; if they participate in class, how frequently they do so, and what reasons they have for choosing not to participate; if they believe any particular individual or group of individuals are given more opportunities to participate than they; and if the instructor calls on them by name or in some other manner. In order to gather this type of information, the Student Perception Questionnaire was developed.

[5]This Questionnaire was developed by Dr. Janice Pearce as part of the CAPSS project.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE STUDENT PERCEPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

The following procedures were used to develop the Student Perception Questionnaire:

1. Specific concerns regarding classroom interaction based on a review of the literature were identified and a series of questions were developed.

2. Form I of the questionnaire contained open-ended questions to which students could respond in their own words. Included were questions such as: "To what extent did you volunteer to respond to questions that were asked of the class by the instructor?", "Were there times you wanted to participate in class by asking a question or making a comment but did not do so? If so, why did you not do so?", "Were there times you raised your hand but didnot get called on? How often? Why do you think you were not recognized?" It was administered to a sample of approximately 125 students from three university classes in December, 1979.

3. Responses from the open-ended questions were analyzed and categorized. Multiple choice alternatives were formulated from those responses and Form II of the questionnaire was developed. This form included an "other" category as one of the choices for each question, along with space for an explanation.

4. Form II was administered to a total of 353 students in four introductory social science courses at Utah State University during the seventh week of winter quarter, 1980. The computer was used to provide an item analysis and an analysis of variance of multiple choice alternatives by age and sex for each of the four classes. Race was not used as a variable in this analysis because of insufficient representation from groups other than white.

5. Responses to the "other" choice on each question were tabulated. This resulted in further modification of wording and multiple choice alternatives.

6. Form III was provided to task force members for further analysis and recommendations. Additional refinements were made for the field review edition.

7. Over 2,000 students from diversified racial groups in eighteen different classes at six colleges and universities in California completed the Form III version of the questionnaire as part of the field review of the CAPSS project materials. Race was used as a variable in this analysis. On the basis of these students' responses and the faculty evaluations of the questionnaire, it was again modified.

From the initial stages of the development of this questionnaire, avoiding obtrusiveness in looking for differential treatment of students was important. Therefore, questions avoided direct sex or racial references other than asking for demographic information. In the final version, only one question makes a specific reference to males and females.

DIRECTIONS FOR USE[6]

The Student Perception Questionnaire contains 19 items designed to gather students' perceptions of selected classroom behaviors. It is a self-assessment tool to provide feedback to instructors about how they interact with students, and to determine if students perceive the instructor as interacting differently in relation to the sex, race, or age of class members.

The questionnaire can be administered to a class in a fifteen-minute period by the regular instructor or, preferably, by a proxy. The proxy can be a class member. The questionnaire should be administered in an objective manner that encourages honest and frank responses from students. Maintaining the anonymity of the respondents is essential.

The questionnaire is designed to be used in college and university classes of varying size and in various disciplines. If given near the midpoint of a quarter or semester, the instructor will have time to generate changes suggested by the feedback.

[6]The Student Perception Questionnaire may be reproduced for classroom use.

STUDENT PERCEPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Course _____ Date _____

The attached form asks for your responses to questions relating to this course. Do not put your name on the form or in any way identify yourself. It is important that you remain anonymous. Your instructor will later receive the completed forms in order that the information you provide can be used by her/him for evaluation purposes.

Please answer each question as honestly as possible. Your assistance with this effort to improve education is appreciated.

Curriculum Analysis Project for Social Sciences

DIRECTIONS: ANSWER EACH OF THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS. GIVE ONLY ONE ANSWER TO EACH QUESTION. PLACE THE NUMBER CORRESPONDING TO YOUR ANSWER ON THE BLANK TO THE LEFT OF THE QUESTION.

_____ 1. Age at present time:
(1) 17-20
(2) 21-24
(3) 25-30
(4) 31-40
(5) 41 or more

_____ 2. Citizenship:
(1) Citizen of the U.S.A.
(2) Noncitizen of the U.S.A.

_____ 3. Race:
(1) Caucasian (White American)
(2) Black American
(3) Hispanic (Mexican-American, Puerto Rican, Cuban, etc.)
(4) Native American (North American Indian/Alaskan)
(5) Asian American

_____ 4. Sex:
(1) Male
(2) Female

_____ 5. This course is:
(1) Required for my academic major
(2) Not in my academic major

_____ 6. Does your instructor know you by name?
(1) Yes
(2) No
(3) Don't know or uncertain

_____ 7. How often do you voluntarily answer questions or contribute to class discussions in this class?
(1) Never
(2) One to three times during the course
(3) An average of once a week
(4) An average of two to three times a week
(5) An average of one or more times a day

_____ 8. How often does the instructor call on you or ask you to respond to a question or comment?
(1) Instructor does not call on anyone
(2) One to three times during the course

(3) An average of once a week
(4) An average of two to three times a week or more
(5) Never

_____ 9. How does the instructor most frequently call on you?
(1) By name
(2) By pointing with hand
(3) By eye contact/looking directly at me
(4) Instructor never calls on me

_____10. Are there times when you raise your hand to ask a question or make a comment but do not get called on by the instructor?
(1) Once or twice
(2) Three or more times
(3) I am called on when I raise my hand
(4) I never raise my hand

_____11. Why do you think the instructor does not call on you when you raise your hand? (Select the one answer which best reflects your opinion.)
(1) Too many students want to respond
(2) Others beat me to it
(3) Instructor does not see or hear me
(4) Instructor ignores me
(5) This situation never occurs

_____12. Are there times you want to participate in class by asking a question or making a comment but choose not to do so?
(1) Once or twice
(2) Three or more times
(3) Nearly every day
(4) No, because I participate when I want to
(5) I do not want to participate

_____13. If you have wanted to participate in class by asking a question or making a comment but did not do so, what was your reason for not doing so? (Select the one response that most closely corresponds with your feelings.)
(1) Felt insecure, inadequate, or uncertain
(2) Another student asked question or commented first
(3) Too many students in class
(4) Disagreed with instructor but chose not to speak out
(5) This situation never occurs

_____14. In your opinion, which students most frequently participate in class? (Select the one answer that best represents your opinion.)
(1) Those who are most knowledgeable or most interested in the subject
(2) Those who are seeking clarification or want more information
(3) Those who are trying to show off or get attention
(4) I have not noticed

_____15. In your opinion, which students ask the most questions and make the most comments in class?
(1) Male student(s)
(2) Female student(s)
(3) Male and female students equally
(4) Have not noticed

_____16. How does the instructor react to the questions and comments you make in class?
(1) Encourages me to question or comment again
(2) Discourages me from commenting or asking a question again
(3) Neither encourages nor discourages me
(4) I never participate

_____17. In your opinion, how does the instructor react to opinions and comments given by other students in the class?
(1) Respects the opinions of students in this class
(2) Does not respect the opinions of students in this class
(3) Embarrasses or "puts down" students for their opinions
(4) I did not notice

_____18. Does your instructor use humor or make humorous references that you feel are offensive, embarrassing, or belittling to any individuals or groups?
(1) Never
(2) One time
(3) Occasionally
(4) Frequently

_____19. How often do students participate in this class by asking questions or making comments?
(1) Never
(2) Rarely
(3) Occasionally
(4) Frequently

ANALYSIS OF DATA

One of the primary questions to be answered by data from the Student Perception Questionnaire is, Does a difference exist in the perceptions of men and women students in regard to classroom interaction patterns? More specific questions addressing this issue are, Do students perceive that the instructor calls on both men and women students by name? Is there a difference in the way men and women students perceive the instructor's humor? Do students perceive a difference in how the instructor reacts to comments made by men and women students in class? And one of the most potentially revealing questions is, Do men and women students contribute to class discussion in approximately equal numbers and, if not, for what reasons?

These same questions can be addressed in regard to the variables of race, citizenship, and age. The instructor can base decisions about which variables are meaningful for the data analysis on the demographic makeup of the class.

The questions posed by the questionnaire can be analyzed through a frequency distribution giving the number of responses (N) and percentage of responses (%) for each alternative on each question. Responses can be classified by sex, race, citizenship, or age, or by any combination.

Most college and university computer centers are equipped with programs to analyze the data in this manner. Although computer analysis has obvious advantages, doing a frequency distribution by hand is feasible for small classes.

This type of descriptive analysis will yield answers without need of more elaborate statistical techniques. If, however, establishing whether differences in student responses are statistically significant is desired, additional techniques can be used.

A student T-test can be used to determine whether statistically significant differences exist between two specific response categories. Also, the analysis of variance is a technique that could be used to determine if statistically significant differences exist among two or more variables.

These techniques can be used to analyze a specific class. They can also be used to compare the perceptions of students in each of the classes that an instructor teaches. For example, an instructor could assess whether classroom interaction is perceived differently by students in academic major courses than those in general education courses, by students in upper compared to lower division courses, and by students in small discussion groups versus those in large lecture courses.

INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

In interpreting the results, remember that the responses are opinions or perceptions which may or may not be consistent with observable fact in the classroom. For example, some questions ask about the comparative class participation of men and women students. The value of the questionnaire lies in learning who students think participate most frequently and why. The instructor can analyze the reasons for these perceptions. If the purpose were the accurate quantification of the relative contributions of the two sexes, one would proceed quite differently.

Realizing that students can accurately perceive what occurs in a class without knowing or understanding why is also important. For example, if a particular student has dominated discussion and impeded class progress, the instructor might have attempted to control the student's behavior through lack of positive reinforcement or even through aversive tactics. Students might accurately perceive the instructor's behaviors as negative and reflect that perception in the questionnaire but not that the instructor's purpose was improvement of class progress.

We again emphasize that this questionnaire is a self-assessment tool through which students convey their perceptions. Within this constraint it is a tool through which instructors can better understand some of their students' attitudes and through which instructors can become more sensitive to some of their own classroom behaviors and the attitudes their behaviors may reflect or generate.

To facilitate the interpretation of the questionnaire results, the following shows the questions grouped into three sections:

Demographic information	(questions 1–5)
Faculty patterns of communication	(questions 6, 8, 9, 11, 16, 17, 18)
Student participation	(questions 7, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 19)

Factors which may be important to consider in interpreting results include (1) the proportion of women and men in the class; (2) racial composition of the class; (3) format (i.e., lecture, discussion, seminar); (4) class size; (5) classroom environment; and (6) expectations of faculty and students concerning interaction patterns. These factors may be interrelated in a variety of ways. In a class consisting of more women than men, students of both sexes may see men and women as participating equally. This indicates participation rates may be proportionately lower for women than men (Question 15). When responses to the questions about an individual's own participation rates are analyzed, differential racial or age groups of men and women may show varying participation rates. Older black women might have the lowest self-reported participation rates and young white men the highest. Even if such a racial breakdown is not feasible in a class, other patterns may emerge. For example, results from some classes in the field test indicated that a larger proportion

of women than men responded that they never volunteered in class (question 7, response 1). Also, more women responded that they were never called on by the instructor (question 9, response 4); never raised their hands (question 10, response 4); did not want to participate (question 12, response 5); and never participated (question 16, response 4). At the same time, there may also be a segment of female students who indicate as high or higher participation rates as male students (question 7, response 5; question 8, response 4).

The questionnaire's main purpose is to examine student perception of classroom interaction between students and faculty. Many other dimensions of communication in the educational environment can be examined. Examples are student-student interaction in the classroom, faculty-student interaction outside the classroom, and faculty-faculty interaction. All these areas could not be covered within the scope of this questionnaire. Faculty, however, may want to add their own questions to explore some of these ideas.

Faculty may also want to discuss the questionnaire results with students. By informing students about perceived participation differences, the goal of more equitable participation may be achieved. One faculty member who served as a reviewer in the field test felt that just administering the questionnaire increased the overall rate of student participation. Focusing on the issue of interaction will reveal aspects of the college learning experience important to both students and faculty.

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